

Optic Algebras: Beyond In-memory Data Structures

J. Lopez-Gonzalez^{a,b,1,*}, J.M. Serrano^{a,b}

^aUniversidad Rey Juan Carlos

^bHabla Computing

Abstract

Abstract goes here!

1. Introduction

Optics provide abstractions and patterns to access and update immutable in-memory data structures. Specifically, they access and update *focus* values which are contextualized within a *whole* data structure. There are different kinds of optics in the folklore², each of them describing a particular type of transformation. Among them, *lens* [1] has become the most prominent one.

A lens do focus on a unique value that is always available from the whole data structure. They turn out to be very useful to deal with nested data structures [2]. As an example, consider the following entities, where `@Lenses` generates a lens for each field (or focus) in the annotated case class (or whole):

```
@Lenses case class Person(  
  name: String,  
  address: Address)
```

```
@Lenses case class Address(  
  city: String,  
  zip: Int)
```

Now suppose that we want to modify the zip code associated to a person. Since lenses composition is closed [3], we could express that transformation by combining the lenses associated to *address* and *zip* fields and then using the resulting composed lens to invoke the modifying method:

```
def modZip(f: Int => Int): Person => Person =  
  (address compose zip).modify(f)
```

*Corresponding author

Email addresses: `j.lopezgo@alumnos.urjc.es`
(J. Lopez-Gonzalez), `j.serrano.hidalgo@urjc.es`
(J.M. Serrano)

¹This is the specimen author footnote.

²<http://oleg.fi/gists/images/optics-hierarchy.svg>

Despite the elegance that we get to describe this kind of transformations, lenses are restricted to work exclusively with in-memory data structures. Imagine that we wanted to persist this person in a relational database. In this scenario, we would discard optics in favor of the specific transformations provided by the new technology. Otherwise, we would need to pull the whole state, modify it by means of a lens and finally put it back again, which turns out to be completely impractical.

Firstly, we claim that it is possible to collect the essence of optics in a domain specific language [4], aimed to take optic abstractions and patterns beyond in-memory data structures. Secondly, we claim that this language is expressive enough to implement the data layer of an application and its associated logic once and for all, and later instantiate them to particular state-based interpretations: in-memory data structures, databases, microservices, etc. Lastly, we claim that we can do so while retaining reasonable levels of performance for a large class of applications. These are our contributions to fulfill our claims:

- We propose *lens algebra* (section 2), which distills the algebraic essence of a lens. To better illustrate this idea, we need to see lenses from a coalgebraic perspective [5, 6, 7]. In this sense, optics are just machines—that can possibly run forever [8]—with buttons that can be pressed to observe or forward the machine state. In fact, what we mean by the algebraic essence is just the description of the machine interface in terms of its buttons, where any reference to the inner state has been abstracted away.
- Lens algebras in their *raw* formulation do not

compose. In fact, it is difficult to determine what we mean by composition at this level of abstraction. To alleviate the situation, we propose a *natural* representation (section 3)—which heavily relies on natural transformations [9]—that enables composition for lens algebras.

- We take these ideas to other optics, particularly: *getter*, *setter*, *fold*, *affine* and *weak traversal*³. As a result, we end up with a collection of algebras that we refer to as *optic algebras* (section 4). These algebras represent analogous transformations to their in-memory optic counterparts, even preserving heterogeneous composition, but in a more general setting.
- We provide *Stateless* (section 5), an optic algebra library which is aimed to take these concepts and patterns to the development of industrial applications in the Scala ecosystem.

Previously, when we stated that optic algebras pursue transforming state in different settings, we actually meant that we want them to support different state-based effects [10]. In this sense, there exists work relating optics and effects, being *monadic lenses* [11] the most relevant one. Bidirectional transformations [12, 13] is also a great source of effectful transformations. We will compare our approach with these techniques in section 6.

2. Towards more abstract lenses

As stated in [1], lenses approach the view update problem for tree-structured data. They consist of a pair of functions, one of them to *get* the part from the whole and another one to *set* a new part into the current whole, returning a new version for the whole. We represent concrete lenses in Scala [2] as follows:

```
case class Lens[S, A](
  get: S => A,
  set: (S, A) => S)
```

As you may figured out, *S* and *A* role the whole and the part, respectively. Lens operations must obey certain laws to be considered very well-behaved [14]. Broadly, they keep the consistency

³This is a relaxed traversal, where the transformation function for each focus must be exactly the same.

between *get* and *set* and check that *set* does not modify anything else beyond the part. We show them below:

$set(s, get(s)) = s$	GetPut
$get(set(s, a)) = a$	PutGet
$set(set(a1, s), a2) = set(s, a2)$	PutPut

In section 1 we inferred that lens generation for the fields of a case class is systematic, since we could generate them automatically. As an example, here it is the manual implementation of *zip*, which just determines where is the part that we may want to access or update:

```
val zip = Lens[Address, Int](
  s => s.zip,
  (s, a) => s.copy(zip = a))
```

Now, it is time for us to distill lenses and extract their algebraic essence. This consists of abstracting the in-memory details away, in other words, removing any reference to the outer *S* state from the pair of functions *get* and *set*. To do so, we will try to represent both operations in terms of a state transformation $State[S, ?]$, where *S* is completely isolated, and therefore easier to abstract away.

State transformations take an initial state and additional input, to produce the new version of the state along with some output. What follows is an informal adaptation of the original *get* and *set* signatures into this state transformation template.

Remark. Let *s, a* be types representing the whole and the focus of a lens, respectively. So,

$$\begin{aligned}
& (get, set) \\
& = (S \Rightarrow A, (S, A) \Rightarrow S) & (a) \\
& = (S \Rightarrow A, (A, S) \Rightarrow S) & (b) \\
& = (S \Rightarrow A, A \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow S) & (c) \\
& = (1 \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow A, A \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow S) & (d) \\
& = (1 \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow A, A \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow (S, 1)) & (e) \\
& = (1 \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow (S, A), A \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow (S, 1)) & (f^*) \\
& = (1 \Rightarrow State[S, A], A \Rightarrow State[S, 1]) & (g) \\
& \therefore (1 \Rightarrow F[A], A \Rightarrow F[1]) & (h^*)
\end{aligned}$$

So, we start from the original signatures of our *get* and *set* operations packed in a tuple (a). After swapping the arguments (b) and currying (c) from *set*, we provide an artificial input argument for *get* (d) typed 1. On the other hand, *set* is lacking the corresponding output, which is added in (e).

The next step consists of providing an artificial transformed output for *get* (f). We know that this method does not update the state, so this change of signature comes with a new law⁴: the initial state must be placed as the transformed one as is.

$$get_f(s).1 = s \quad \mathbf{XGet}$$

Finally, once we have our signatures matching the state transformation template, we can describe them in terms of *State*[*S*, ?], which is the only place where we reference *S* in both operations (g). Now, we can abstract away this reference to *S* by turning *State*[*S*, ?] into a mere *F*[?] (h). As you might noticed, this step does not come for free, it requires us to include new laws. We will come back to this aspect shortly. By now, we can see that the essence of a lens is precisely a lens algebra. We now package *get_h* and *set_h* in a *trait* to reify this concept:

```
trait LensAlg[F[_], A] {
  def get(): F[A]
  def set(a: A): F[Unit]
}
```

If we take into account that typeclasses [15] in Scala are modeled as traits [16], we can appreciate that this class is basically *MonadState* [17]. The major structural difference relies in the fact that our class does not extend *Monad*. To go further with this connection, we need to bring laws into the picture.

The final step of the derivation led us to *get_j* and *set_j*, that no longer returned plain types. Instead, their codomain is wrapped with a type constructor in both cases. Once we carry out this step, lens laws become broken. Take **GetSet** as an example, we cannot feed the codomain of *get_j* to *set_j*, since it is expecting an *A* typed argument.

If we want to recover lens laws, we are going to need additional combinators. These combinators are precisely the ones that we get when *LensAlg* extends *Monad*. By providing them, **GetSet** becomes *get_j >>= set_j = return()*, which is exactly one of the laws from *MonadState*. In fact, lens laws turn into *MonadState* laws when we abstract away from *State*[*S*,?]. As a result, we determine that the essence of a lens is literally *MonadState*.

⁴Steps marked with an asterisk represent that additional laws emerge.

3. Natural implementation of lenses

Once our lenses algebras are defined, we could be interested in combining them, just as plain lenses are combined. However, when we move composition to this scenario, the situation becomes more complicated. As we saw in the person example (section 1), lenses compose when the focus of the first lens matches the whole of the second one. However, our optic algebras have a type constructor *F*[?] as weird whole and a concrete type *A* as focus, which leads to an odd scenario.

Therefore, we need to ask ourselves what does it mean to compose a pair of lens algebras. To do so, we will suppose that we have defined the corresponding optic algebras to the optics we described in the person example:

```
def addressAlg: LensAlg[F[_], Address]
def zipAlg: LensAlg[G[_], Int]
```

At this point, we do not know much about them, but we may guess from the context that *addressAlg* should be hiding somehow the state of a *Person* while granting accessors to its *Address* part, while *zipAlg* encapsulates an *Address*, providing accessors to the *Int* zip code. Therefore, if we compose *addressAlg* with *zipAlg* we should end up with a lens whose type would be close to *LensAlg*[*F*[_], *Address*], i.e. an algebra that hides a person and put focus on the zip code associated to its address. However, this composition is not possible, since it requires a morphism $G \rightsquigarrow F$ to be implemented.

Unfortunately, we know now that lens algebras do not compose. However, along the way, we found an interesting clue: we need a homomorphism to compose them. This is interesting, since there are further connections between monad morphisms and lenses [12]. Having said so, we would like to instantiate lens algebra buttons with a morphism-alike representation, to restore composition. This morphism should contemplate the notion of transforming programs on the part into programs on the whole. This is how we get to the following abstraction:

```
case class NatLensAlg[P[_], Q[_], A](
  hom: Q ~> P)(implicit
  M: Monad[P]
  MS: MonadState[A, Q]) extends LensAlg[P, A] {
  def get(): P[A] = hom(MS.get)
  def put(a: A): P[Unit] = hom(MS.put(a))
}
```

NatLensAlg takes three type parameters. The first of them represents the outer program, that knows how to access the whole. On the other hand, the second one, or inner program, knows how to access the focus. The type of the focus is determined by the third type parameter. This abstraction takes one value parameter `hom`, which corresponds with the monad homomorphism that enables composition.

However, if we want to instantiate `LensAlg` we need to determine what particular inner programs are the ones that get and set the focus, which will be used to feed the morphism while implementing the outer get and put. That is the reason why we need to constraint our focus program to be a *MonadState*. Finally, it is worth mentioning that composition of natural lens algebras is just monad morphism composition:

```
def compose [P[_], Q[_], R[_], B](
  ln1 : NatLensAlg [P, Q, A]
  ln2 : NatLensAlg [Q, R, B]) (implicit
  MS1 : MonadState [A, Q],
  MS2 : MonadState [B, R]) : NatLensAlg [P, R, B] =
  NatLensAlg (ln1.hom compose ln2.hom)
```

Now, we can redefine our original lenses as natural lens algebras and compose them:

```
def addressNat : NatLensAlg [F[_], Address]
def zipNat : NatLensAlg [G[_], Int]
def compNat : NatLensAlg [F[_], Int] =
  compose (addressNat, zipNat)
```

Notice that we are still working at a high level of abstraction. In fact, we have no idea about how are `F[_]` or `G[_]` handling their encapsulated state. As long as `hom` is a monad morphism, our composed lens expresses that we can access or update the nested zip code from a person, no matter the particular configuration where state is deployed.

4. Generalizing to other optics

5. Stateless: an optic algebra Scala library

6. Discussion

7. Conclusion

Acknowledgements

MINECO

References

- [1] J Nathan Foster, Michael B Greenwald, Jonathan T Moore, Benjamin C Pierce, and Alan Schmitt. Combinators for bi-directional tree transformations: a linguistic approach to the view update problem. *ACM SIGPLAN Notices*, 40(1):233–246, 2005.
- [2] Tony Morris. Asymmetric lenses in scala. 2012.
- [3] Matthew Pickering, Jeremy Gibbons, and Nicolas Wu. Profunctor optics: Modular data accessors. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.10857*, 2017.
- [4] Paul Hudak. Building domain-specific embedded languages. *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, 28(4es):196, 1996.
- [5] Bart P.F. Jacobs. Objects and classes, coalgebraically. Technical report, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, The Netherlands, 1995.
- [6] Bart Jacobs and Jan Rutten. A tutorial on (co) algebras and (co) induction. *Bulletin-European Association for Theoretical Computer Science*, 62:222–259, 1997.
- [7] Russell O’Connor. Functor is to lens as applicative is to biplate: Introducing multiplate. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1103.2841*, 2011.
- [8] David A Turner. Total functional programming. *J. UCS*, 10(7):751–768, 2004.
- [9] Benjamin C Pierce. *Basic category theory for computer scientists*. MIT press, 1991.
- [10] Philip Wadler. Monads for functional programming. In *International School on Advanced Functional Programming*, pages 24–52. Springer, 1995.
- [11] Faris Abou-Saleh, James Cheney, Jeremy Gibbons, James McKinna, and Perdita Stevens. Reflections on monadic lenses. *CoRR*, abs/1601.02484, 2016.
- [12] Faris Abou-Saleh, James Cheney, Jeremy Gibbons, James McKinna, and Perdita Stevens. Notions of bidirectional computation and entangled state monads. In *International Conference on Mathematics of Program Construction*, pages 187–214. Springer, 2015.
- [13] Faris Abou-Saleh and Jeremy Gibbons. Coalgebraic aspects of bidirectional computation. *Journal of Object Technology*, 16(1), 2017.
- [14] Sebastian Fischer, Zhenjiang Hu, and Hugo Pacheco. A clear picture of lens laws. In *International Conference on Mathematics of Program Construction*, pages 215–223. Springer, 2015.
- [15] Philip Wadler and Stephen Blott. How to make ad-hoc polymorphism less ad hoc. In *Proceedings of the 16th ACM SIGPLAN-SIGACT symposium on Principles of programming languages*, pages 60–76. ACM, 1989.
- [16] Bruno CdS Oliveira, Adriaan Moors, and Martin Odersky. Type classes as objects and implicits. In *ACM Sigplan Notices*, volume 45, pages 341–360. ACM, 2010.
- [17] Jeremy Gibbons. Unifying theories of programming with monads. In *International Symposium on Unifying Theories of Programming*, pages 23–67. Springer, 2012.